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EDITORIAL

In America we have developed the most highly child-centered culture (save for a few preliterate cultures) in the history of the world. It is natural, as a consequence, that we should express much anxiety over the possible impact of war upon our children—from children of nursery age to our eighteen- and nineteen-year-olds.

This anxiety is legitimate. We are not merely fighting a war—we are fighting a war to preserve a way of life. What happens to our children during this war will determine their capacity to reaffirm and carry on the way of life for which we are fighting.

At the same time, it is clearly written for all of us to read that our enemies are determined not merely to defeat us in a military sense, but to exterminate us as a people. We must win this war if our children are to have the opportunity to perpetuate our way of life.

It follows that old problems must be approached from unaccustomed values, the most basic of which are the military necessities which are necessary to victory. The question becomes not: "Will our children be harmed by the ordeal we must endure?" This is total war, and there is no escape for our children. The question becomes, rather: "How, in doing the things we must do to win this war, can we safeguard our children against unnecessary hurt, physical and psychic?"

Margaret Mead presents a point of view that deserves thoughtful

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consideration in seeking an answer to this question. Anna Wolf tells what home and community may contribute to answering it. Dr. Despert gives sound advice to the school, on the basis of firsthand observation of children's psychological reactions to the war. Ethel Percy Andrus's article on the controversial High School Victory Corps should be read in relation to Dr. Despert's recommendations.

HARVEY ZORBAUGH

NEW INFORMATION ON MILITARY OCCUPATIONS

The *Occupational Index*, established in 1936 under a grant from the Carnegie Corporation, has just announced that in the future it will review, annotate, index, and evaluate all new publications on military occupations; including all books and pamphlets which describe the attractions and the disadvantages, the opportunities and requirements of all branches of the Army, Navy, Marines, Coast Guard, Air Corps, WAACS, WAVES, and WOWS, and the Service Projects for Conscientious Objectors. New subscribers will receive a recommended list of publications already available. The *Occupational Index* is published quarterly at New York University; the annual subscription price is five dollars.

Professor Robert Hoppock, in announcing the new service, said that vocational guidance for boys is becoming almost exclusively guidance for military service and that it promises to remain so for the duration. He predicted that school and college counselors would soon find their college catalogues and books on civilian occupations being pushed off the shelves by books and pamphlets on the new military careers. The new service, he said, is designed to help schools and libraries to find the best sources of information on any branches of the service in which their students may be interested.

WAR NEED NOT MAR OUR CHILDREN*

MARGARET MEAD

Can we protect our children in wartime? In the bottom of their hearts most Americans believe that we cannot, that we are condemned to seeing a whole generation of little children marred by war. This basic belief shows through the barrage of nervous, excitable questions, of rumors and cross rumors, about evacuation and air-raid shelters, about nutrition plans, identification tags, and discussion of what to tell the children about the war.

From the mother of young children to the welfare worker, the nurse, the teacher come the anxious, recurrent, worried questions, sometimes cast in personal terms, sometimes including all the children of America within their scope. What is going to happen to education? Will all the school routines be interrupted? Is there going to be a dreadful increase in juvenile delinquency? Have we the available child psychologists to deal with the children who are war shocked?

On the surface, these all appear merely reasonable questions, which should be answered quietly, informatively, with facts about how evacuation is finally working out in England, with authoritative statements from the best child psychiatrists about how slightly children have actually suffered from the Blitz itself, and how much more they suffered from evacuation away from parents, friends, and teachers. Child-guidance experts can be brought in to state clearly, definitely, that if the adults are calm, unhysterical, serene, the children will not show any serious signs of shock. The best experience in England, backed up by two years of careful work, shows these signs to be true. If we tell inquiring and anxious mothers these things, will they not be reassured?

*The point of view Margaret Mead presents here first appeared in *The New York Times Magazine* shortly after Pearl Harbor. Dr. Mead's viewpoint is so basic to our thinking about our children in relation to the war that THE JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY requested the permission of *The New York Times* to include it in this issue.

Similarly, with the welfare workers. They recognize the immense unfilled needs in this country for better health and welfare work. Is not their anxiety merely a reasonable and responsible insistence on the things to be done? And the teachers, worrying about the interruptions of education, the problems of possible school evacuation? Well, they were problems in England. Education was terribly interrupted. In 1941 the Minister of Education, broadcasting, announced that of 5,000,000 elementary-school children 700,000 were receiving only part-time instruction and 800,000 were "unaccounted for." If this happened in England, is it not reasonable for teachers to be worried about what is to happen here?

But when we analyze all these fears and worries into those which appear reasonable and those which appear to be due to ignorance, and carefully remove the ignorance, explain that evacuation is working very well in England, advance programs for welfare action in this country, do we find that the persistent fear disappears? No, instead we find that it continues, and those who have tried to explain it have been driven to various sorts of indictment of Americans, mothers and teachers and welfare workers, as hysterical and unable to take it. They say that this recurrent fear of "what the war is going to do to our children" is just a projection of our own instability. And then those people who enjoy spreading accounts of how low morale is tell about a welfare council meeting entirely devoted to identification tags and sand boxes for putting out bombs.

But an anthropologist who has watched attitudes of adults toward children in many different societies will give a different answer. Admitting that wartime brings dislocation and confusion, admitting that people are badly misinformed about conditions in England and know only of the failures and very little of the successes, and do not realize that evacuation of children through careful stages of day nurseries and then to country school camps is now a very going concern, the anthropologist recognizes that there is more behind this fear than lack of information or individual hysteria.

Americans have been reared in the belief that any contact with the facts of life and death is dangerous to children. Birth, sex, dying, and death are occasions for which children have been hustled away. The ears of mothers and teachers and social workers have been filled with accounts of the terrible effects which such scenes, accidentally witnessed, have had on children's tender minds.

We know, of course, that in the slums children often see such things, but that is vaguely felt to be responsible for the amount of crime which comes out of the slums. Children must be protected, at all costs, from any close contact with the realities. Even the modern educational methods which have mocked at the flowers-and-bees stories and insisted upon telling children "the facts of life" have halted before the suggestions of telling children very much about the facts of death.

On every hand we find traces of this attitude—motion pictures which are regarded as unfit for children, plans to take the older child away when the new baby is born, disapproval of those of European or simple country background who would take a child to a funeral or allow it to see a laid-out body. Our comfortable urban classes have been protected from birth and taught that they must protect all children from these scarring contacts.

Then suddenly, and for the first time in our lifetime, there is the possibility that mothers and teachers and welfare workers will not be able to protect children from such things, that bombs may fall and people die before their eyes, that no will in the world can give them the safety from the harsh realities which we have believed are lethal to children's psychological welfare. Therefore, people are worried, worried as they would be if they were told that their children's diet for the next two or three years was to contain a daily dose of poison.

It is not merely the chance of death from bombs—for most people know that only one quarter of one per cent of the civilian population of London were casualties in the midst of a Blitz far more

terrible than American cities are likely to encounter—but it is the chance of psychological maiming from the knowledge and experience of death to others, by bombs, that seems so dangerous.

Belatedly, those who have lectured on child care and warned of the extreme sensitivity of the growing human organism are now trying to reassure mothers and teachers by telling them how tough, how superficial, how “don’t carish” children naturally are. They also reiterate the point made by psychiatrists who have watched English children that if the adults are calm the children will be calm.

But none of this gets at the root of the trouble. Persistently, at the back of their minds, people continue to believe, as they have been taught, that contact with death will maim their children’s minds for life. Unless this basic issue is faced all the job of reassurance and information and exhortation to calmness will fail and the fear of what will happen to the children of America will remain a terrible vulnerable point in American morale.

And so the anthropologist is asked: “Is it true? Will scenes of dying mar a child’s mind for life?” And to this the anthropologist can answer: “No, not unless the adults expect them to.” I have seen a group of Samoan children clustered with their elders around an open grave in which a postmortem Caesarian operation was being performed, interested, curious, but unhurt, going away afterward to play, discussing the scene lightly.

Neither the adults nor the children were upset. It was sad that the mother had died, sad that the baby—yes, it was a girl and a pretty one too—had died, but people did die, every month or so in the village and those immediately bereft wept. No one shooed the children away, no one suggested that they were not able to watch quietly, as their elders. And the shared experience brought no nightmares. Yet this was a scene that would send a certain thrill of fearful repulsion down the spine of the average American adult.

On the other hand, in Bali, during an ordinary birth, when no

one had died and no one was going to die, I have seen children fall into paralyzed fear sleeps, fear from which they could not be awakened except by five minutes of severe shaking. Folklore, in Bali, surrounds a birth scene with witches, dreadful long-nailed harpies, ready to snatch the newborn child away, and children have been so terrorized by such tales that they go into these terror sleeps in the midst of all the excitement of a birth scene.

In other parts of the South Seas I have seen children take part in mourning scenes of great violence, where the mourners, arriving in canoes, ran the length of the rocking pile house and flung themselves on the corpse with such force that sometimes the whole house floor broke and the mourning crowd, adults and children, fell into the sea. But the night after scenes like this no nightmare cries rang through the village.

Children are not maimed by contact with death or with life. They are maimed if they have to face such contact alone or if all those around them expect them to be maimed, or if, as too often happens, their only contact with the facts of life and death comes to them in the death of a member of their own family. Unprepared to face any reality, and suddenly confronted with its full impact in their own families, they have, of course, been traumatized, and child-guidance experts have told us of their cases. In England, also, children who have seen members of their own family injured or killed have suffered psychologically, though not to such a degree that psychiatry cannot restore them to full functioning.

But the simple facts of life and death, as they occur in war or peace, in the community, do not hurt children. We have been overprotecting children for fifty years, and now, faced with the circumstance that we can overprotect them no longer, Americans are worried. Unless they can learn to believe that their worry is needless, that they can protect their children simply by including them, serenely, within the community circle as the community faces whatever disasters may come—the children will be hurt not by

bombs, but by the isolation thrust upon them as their parents tensely put them off with feeble fibs and tales that the blackout is to keep the naughty Japs from stealing their toys. The children can stand up to reality, however grim, if the adults can, and if the adults believe in the children's strength.

When those responsible for planning—citizens, welfare workers, civilian defense officials—have crossed this cultural hurdle, have shaken off the fear that no child can stand contact with death, then we can get on with the business of considering just what methods are best to give children the health and educational protection that they will need during this emergency period.

What those practical plans should be is now fairly well known. Bombed cities, sabotaged cities without adequate heat or light or sanitation, are no places for children. Many defense areas in which the majority of women are working and where living conditions are incredibly bad are very doubtful places for children.

On the other hand, foster home placement on any large scale is equally not recommended. In England far more psychological casualties have been found in children placed in foster homes away from the Blitz than among children left with their parents, schoolmates, and teachers, right in the Blitz. But from this very well-documented fact many American planners here have drawn the hasty conclusion that therefore children should not be moved anywhere, even if by moving they would be given better health and educational opportunities.

Actually the English experience has shown that school groups, nursery school, kindergarten, and elementary-school, first grown accustomed over a few months to being away from their mothers and with their class and their teachers, can be moved to the country together, without the penalties that accompanied placing children in strange foster homes. Adjustment to school as one step away from home is something that all of us expect, that parents and children alike are prepared for. The teacher does not replace the mother in

the child's affections; there is no conflict between the own mother left behind and a foster mother on whom the child is dependent.

The United States may never have to face any sort of evacuation. But the people of the coastal cities will have to live as if air raids were a possibility for the duration. This means preparing to protect our children. Such preparation involves cultivating the belief that greater contact with the facts of life and death will not, in itself, hurt them, and the development of more nursery schools, more day nurseries, more kindergartens, closer ties between parents and teachers, will act as insurance against possible evacuation.

If evacuation should come the child who has never been away from his mother's side for half a day is the child whom it will be most difficult to protect. Left in the city, his health, his sleep, his education will be endangered. If he is taken suddenly from his mother his whole psychological adjustment will be equally endangered. Provisional weaning, a few hours every day in some sort of nursery or kindergarten for every child, will guarantee, as no other measure can, protection for our children in wartime.

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THE HOME FRONT IN WARTIME

ANNA W. M. WOLF

The home is at all times a nation's first line of defense. As the guardian of children, it is the guardian of the future itself. We have known, and the experience of England has confirmed it, that if a young child can remain close to a mother who can give him herself unchanged throughout whatever shattering experiences may befall, his essential feeling of security remains intact. Older children's security is similarly based and even for the men at the front the warm and vital things that mean home are what sustain them over miles of space and years of separation, and lie at the very core of what they are fighting for.

This is why there is bound to be concern at the inevitable trend of more and more women leaving their homes for war industries, their children, many of them under school age, consigned to the uncertain care of relatives or neighbors. Even with a day-care plan for young children adequately provided by the Government, which is far from being the case today, there is danger unless those who administer it understand the inner world of childhood and their own part in it. A young child's relations to his home, his parents and especially his mother lie at the very roots of his existence; there is no sound care possible for him which does not take this fact fully into account. Any child-caring center set up to meet the war emergency, or in peacetime, too, for that matter, should understand clearly that it exists to serve the needs not of children alone, but of parents and the American home and that it exists to build and strengthen these ties, sharing children with their parents every step of the way. At least half the job of such centers and perhaps the better half lies in the success with which they promote this sense of partnership with the home, so that every nursery school is a parent center as well as a child center with parent education as well as childhood education its prime business.

Early in the war, parents woke with a start to a sudden renewed sense of responsibility. How could they keep their children safe?—not physically safe only, how could they make them strong to meet whatever lay ahead? Has our education been too soft—too sheltering, unrealistic? Should we long ago have prepared them by some specially devised techniques for a cruel, hard, and hateful world? If so, what might these techniques consist of and who could teach them to us? Yet when the first moment of panic had passed, it became increasingly clear that the strong man is the sound man, sound in mind and feeling as well as in body and that whatever we know of how to rear our children to this kind of health would surely serve them now. Whether for the war that must be fought today or for the peace that must be made tomorrow, youth's capacity for loyalty, flexibility, self-discipline, and understanding are today as always the things that count.

There is, however, no certain formula for raising children who will *surely* be strong, healthy, energetic, able to adjust themselves readily to change and emergency. It is a formula, above all others, that we wish we possessed today. We do know that these qualities are not the result of habit training alone, or of a kind of hardening process by which a child, like the youth of Sparta, is subjected to a system of rigorous tests, until his character, like his muscles, become steeled. Such training and experience may play their part. So do the standards and cultural values of the group in which a child grows up. But back of these, a child's early relation to his parents and particularly to his mother determines character in a far more fundamental sense.

If a mother enjoys her infant and shows it; if she loves feeding him and tending him, can smile readily and handle and play with him, without doing all these things anxiously or "by the book"; if she can be alert to his needs and learn what things bring him peace and a deep organic satisfaction in living, she will have gone far toward laying at least the foundations of an optimistic expectancy

that life, despite repeated blows, is nevertheless worth living. Some day, of course, a child must become self-reliant and face life without his mother. He must learn to go without many things that he wants and perform duties that are distasteful, but there is increasing evidence to show that the less rigid the discipline and the more spontaneous the enjoyment between mother and child during the first two or three years of life, the greater is a child's capacity as time goes on to meet the realities of living and accept the hardships that are bound to come. A little spoiling in fact in the usual sense of the word is not such a bad thing or so hard to undo in the later years of childhood as most of the "books" would have us believe. If the parents are in earnest about it and firm in their authority, a child does learn to live in a civilized world on a give-and-take basis with others; but he learns it more surely if the lessons are gradual and the normal period of infant dependence fully savored.

Whatever is sound treatment for young children in peacetime is equally so in wartime. They need no *special* training. The basis of future strength lies in the young child's feeling that his mother is first and foremost a creature who gives and who loves and only secondarily, and considerably later, one who denies and punishes.

As children get older, they of course need facts to think with. They need the truth, simply told but unvarnished by attempts to make it less frightening or hateful. Yes, we have to fight the Germans and even kill many of them because if we don't they will kill or enslave us. . . . Father may have to go to war. "But will he come back to us?" We hope so very much. But when a man is a soldier he knows, and his mother and his wife and children must know too, that he may be killed; that would mean we would be very very sad. But we would be proud too that he did what was right. If he goes away we will write letters often, and send presents. "What do you think a father far away from home would like to get at Christmas?"

Children do best when facts are faced simply and frankly. Whatever morale means it means more than a "front" and something

different from bravado. For families, it means a courageous and balanced recognition of danger or sorrow, but of dangers and sorrows that however acute need not be faced alone. Any one who has lived with a child through anxiety or loss knows that this experience of sharing is what sustains him. Only the modern gently reared child has been so falsely sheltered that he may never even hear of birth or death or calamity or suffering or share the great emotions that these things bring. War will take its death toll of American families and children will deepen and mature when they stand side by side with others who must face it. In the ordeal of today and tomorrow, there is great need to return to something simpler than many of us have been used to. Tears are not indecent and grief need not be hidden away or dressed up for a child so that it becomes almost grotesquely unrecognizable. Children have a right to share. When the parents struggle to withhold facts that concern them deeply or hide away their feelings, they invariably succeed only in keeping children confused and lonely. Children need a chance to express their feelings, whether they be fear, sorrow, anxiety, or anger. So let us tell them the outlines at least of what we know and encourage them to say openly and without shame whatever they need to say. For a child, strength comes not from continuous make-believe, but from facing reality side by side with parents who never try to hide what is happening and never run away.

Very little children, as we have seen, know only that the war is something big and strange that grownups talk about. They are troubled only as their parents are troubled and when their fathers and mothers can go on with the usual routines of life much as usual, so can they. Somewhat older boys and girls, to a large extent, regard the war as the greatest game ever played and are likely to follow its technical developments with keen interest and its heroic episodes with enthusiasm. Unless they are the kind of children for whom life is a threatening matter at best, the horror of death and destruction for millions or the possibility of its touching their lives does not

really get under their skins. Neither is the political and moral side of the struggle of much concern. Hitler and the Japanese are "bad" of course; they are ready to accept pretty much what they are told in this respect, but, except for certain exceptional children, school and home alike have found that the ideologies involved and an intellectual approach to the social and economic problems that underlie the struggle and that will play so large a part in the making of peace are not of direct interest to children much below the high-school years.

This does not mean, however, that schools and homes should complacently adopt the "business as usual" position in respect to younger children. There must, of course, be a great deal of business as usual for them and for every one, no matter how deep their concern or how wide their activities in behalf of winning the war. Yet, today, parents as well as schools must face the challenge: What are we doing for even our youngest children to make the word "democracy" come alive for them? What is this core of the faith that has led us into this war? How can we teach them so that their understanding becomes a part of their very blood and bone and sinew and so surely that they can never betray it? Whatever the schools can teach, they are working against odds unless homes too become centers for giving meaning to the spirit underlying America's cause in this war. These are learned less through words and books than in daily living. From the moment they find themselves members of a family, a neighborhood, or a town, children need to discover that democracy is a way of life which their parents strive to practise as the *right way*, just as they practise truthfulness, courtesy, kindness, and justice.

In the life of the little child, this is felt first of all in his discovery that other people have equal rights with himself. Since human nature is egoistic this is no small discovery; years are required before it is really learned or accepted. The one-year-old has a right to a turn on his mother's lap as well as an older child aged four. A

sister of ten has a right to play with her own friends unmolested by brothers who tend to regard them as fair game for pranks on the part of the superior male. A mother or father who has been busy all day has a right to be tired now and then, and to expect quiet in the house when resting. Each individual is entitled to have his interests and concerns regarded as important and sincere attempts made to satisfy them wherever possible. Children need plenty of chance to talk over family frictions when they arise and make plans for happier solutions. They need to discover too that government cannot be carried on and decisions made purely on the basis of abstract justice. Things have a way of going wrong unless they are humanized; securing one's "rights" never absolves one from the obligation to be generous. Democracy means service to other citizens—and so it should be among family members from the beginning. Children discover these things by noting where their parents place their emphasis—what things are to them important things, first things.

Democracy may begin at home, but it certainly must not stop there. While children are still young they become acutely aware, too, of their parents' attitude to outsiders. Many a child who is used to finding his parents just and generous in family life must suffer a shock when he sees his mother slam the door in the face of a salesman or make peremptory demands on a servant without either knowledge of or consideration for her circumstances. Many a housewife who is polite and gracious to her own guests or her husband's business friends betrays, by her manner with servants, that she regards "the help" as an inferior class. At such moments democracy, the political expression of the belief in the dignity of individuals and their equal right to consideration, suffers a shock from which it does not easily recover. Teachers will have an uphill job teaching at school what is continuously denied by the attitudes betrayed at home.

"It's all right for you to have the Bartlett and the Smith children

over any time you want, but I don't want those Polish children in our yard. Let them play on their own block with their own kind."

"What kind do you mean are their kind, Mother?"

"Oh, you know, their folks work in the mills—mill hands. They aren't the kind of children who will do you any good. I don't know them and I'm not sure they're *nice* children."

"What can 'nice' mean?" wonders the recipient of this lesson. Maybe it means having parents who speak English. Maybe it means your father must work at an office, not at a machine. Does it mean you should live only in this part of town? Does it mean you should not be Catholic—or you must be Catholic?

Another blow is struck at democracy in the kind of home where children hear that "a family of Jews have moved in down the street," that "it shouldn't be permitted," that "unless this sort of thing is stopped at once, they and their kind will ruin the whole neighborhood." When their parents stand for such attitudes children can scarcely be too indignant if Hitler takes the same view on an international scale.

The important element in educating children to know what the war is all about is for parents themselves to know and to have grasped, not with their minds alone but with their hearts, the spiritual issues involved. Children need something more than formal instruction in "morals," "religion," or "democracy"; they need parents who clearly hold passionate convictions themselves. If these convictions are honestly thought out and deeply felt it will not matter much whether they are "religious" as this word is commonly construed. It will not matter whether children at first only half understand them. What will count is the experience of growing up with parents who believe that there are ways of life definitely better than other ways and that they are worth living and dying for. The moment tolerance becomes indifference, and an excuse for inaction, or for temporizing with injustice, that moment it becomes a vice. To help our children to develop and understand, parents

must themselves develop and understand—and search their very souls. If truth, honor, justice, and love for one's neighbor have a living value for parents, so will they in days to come for children too. Such love of justice must be more than lip service. It must demand fair play for all including even those who are under suspicion, even those of enemy alien descent. Parents who really have justice cannot stand by while their children cold-shoulder the child of German descent or ridicule the Japanese members of their community or steal fruit from the corner grocer whose name and accent are Italian. When parents shrug their shoulders at such acts as "natural in wartime" they give the lie to the basic principles for which this war is fought.

Although in any plan for young children, this kind of consideration of the emotional and often unconscious basis of education must take the lead, at adolescence, if all has gone well, there are significant changes. Although it is by no means true of all adolescents, the years from twelve to sixteen usually mark a widening in the range of interest and an intellectual awakening of the greatest importance. Now the youngster really begins to be ready for facts and theories and the exciting battle with ideas. This is the period of "jam sessions" and explorative impulses into all kinds of adult living and thinking. The young person begins to take what he is taught much less for granted. He becomes argumentative, skeptical, and critical, and often, therefore, very exasperating. He demands to know how things came to be as they are and why it would not have been sensible to run them altogether differently. Here, then, is the moment when education can go forward consciously and directly and move at an amazing rate. Overnight almost, the child changes into a citizen, or at least is clamoring to do so if we have ears to listen.

Adults, if they are to make good their right to be the guides of youth, must be able to lead the way. In addition to their earlier experiences with democratic living, young people now need hard factual instruction. They need information about the problems and

techniques of a democracy. They need historical, political, economic, scientific education. They need a chance to think out loud in contact with maturer minds than their own, mature enough to be patient with youths' apparent dogmatism, flightiness, and instability. In our present-day life, there have been too few opportunities for young and old to share real experiences and blaze trails together. Perhaps now at this great turning point in America's life, ways can be found for them to join hands again and explore together the past history and present problems of the nation.

As a first step, parents might do well to expand their own knowledge. Many adults, even those who are American-born, know very little of the history of the United States. Though they may once have "had a course" back in high school or college, there is scarcely any one who would not profit by more reading and study today. Every American should have a pretty thorough acquaintance with at least one biography each of Washington, Jefferson, Hamilton, and Lincoln. He needs at least a bowing acquaintance with Roger Williams, Tom Paine, William Penn, Benjamin Franklin, Andrew Jackson, William Lloyd Garrison, Robert E. Lee, Thomas Edison, and Woodrow Wilson—not just a vague idea about them, as that "so-and-so discovered electricity" or was the "confederate general during the Civil War," but enough to know in what setting they lived and worked and why they were unique and significant. There is also, the literature of America that has much to tell. Louisa Alcott and Mark Twain and, more recently, Theodore Dreiser are only a few of the old-timers who still hold top places among more recent fiction. American folk music, especially that of Stephen Foster and the Negro spirituals, is not to be forgotten. Either may be had in recorded music. Besides these, American painting warms us by the beauty and meaning in the everyday things that we personally know so well.

It is also important for Americans to know who other Americans are, their national origins and how their ancestors happen to come

here. This ought to dispel the notion that the "true American" is of British origin—and a Protestant—a rooted idea, at least among the privileged classes. Actually less than a half are.

Since isolationism is a thing of the past, no parent or teacher can stop short with a knowledge, no matter how excellent, of America alone. We are now one of twenty-eight United Nations standing shoulder to shoulder in the greatest fight of history. Yet even those who have had the best of high-school or university educations have spent scant time in becoming acquainted with the problems of Mexico or the other American republics or with the great nations of China or Russia, who now are bearing the heaviest burdens and fighting the major portion of America's battles. Indeed the whole East should claim our closest attention. Source material on these nations are still harder to find than they will be a few years hence, yet already there is a move within the schools and on the popular lecture platform to include at least some knowledge of these nations in the curriculum and to make more information available to every one. But this is not enough. Parents need such knowledge too; the conversations at home that flow from such knowledge are among the valuable experiences of growing up.

"Only an informed America is an invincible America," proclaims a radio announcer. Good, as far as it goes, one might answer, but it is not enough even to know and to understand. Heaven knows we must *do*, we must *act* as well, and refuse to let our youth be satisfied with inaction no matter how "informed."

Children can help in the war effort; they are more likely to help if their parents lead the way and if they take the trouble, for example, to let their children in on family problems and family plans. Most of us are beginning to stagger and rub our eyes a little at the present income-tax schedule. Though we have not really begun to feel the pinch there will be a year or so from now, children should be expected to bear their share of household economies. Putting a part of one's small allowance into war savings stamps is one way;

being careful about such trifles as soap and toilet paper and electricity is another. Fewer motion pictures, fewer ice-cream sodas, perhaps staying at home instead of going to camp, the State university instead of an expensive college, sharing a room with another member of the family where space means higher rents—all these are possibilities too.

As a rule parents are too secretive about their incomes and their expenses. There is no good reason why a child of fourteen or more should not know in black and white what the family budget looks like, the earnings on one side, the expenses on the other, so much for rent, for insurance, for food, and all the other items, not to mention the big slice laid aside for taxes. There is every reason why his suggestions for managing and allotting sums should be asked and if possible adopted. Seeing the actual figures is a graphic lesson in why the family cannot have everything it used to have. Parents are usually far too unwilling to let their children make sacrifices. Many a mother will deprive herself or her husband, quite unfairly, rather than expect a daughter to forgo a socially desirable dancing class. The clothing budget for the charming eighteen-year-old who "can only be young once" is often far out of proportion to the total family income. Children's sacrifices when they want to make them should, within reasonable limits, be accepted and every home should expect sacrifices "from each according to his means." The more these are made voluntarily the more mature the child in question is likely to be. There are times however when parents have to make the decision for a child and face him courageously with their decision and the reason for it. It is astonishing to what lengths many parents will go rather than risk the anger of a disappointed offspring.

Children nearly always respond to facts and figures and straightforward, graphic appeals to do a job or to forgo a pleasure when these are really necessary. They like to see a job finished too, and know just how it serves the purpose of winning the war even

though it helps only indirectly. If they can actually be present when the rubber or the scrap metal they have collected is weighed and carted off, the satisfaction is enormous. It is unfortunate that children who take part in this kind of salvage work cannot visit the plants where the rubber and the metal is actually converted into new materials and follow it through to its final destination in a gun or plane. For obvious reasons our production plants must be carefully guarded and cannot permit visitors. Current magazines, however, publish photographs and diagrams and lively descriptive texts. These may be as good a substitute as we can find.

Sincerity lies at the basis of success with children. They have an uncanny way sooner or later of detecting "the bunk" in any project that has no real use. Never should they be encouraged to do something "because it's nice for them to think they're helping" or "good for them to learn to make sacrifices." The child who announced that by "walking carefully on rainy days" he can make his rubbers last longer needs to be shown at once that it does not work that way, but that there are other things he can do to help. Sooner or later he will figure out the fallacy for himself or be laughed at by some one. When that happens he will resent his parents' letting him go on looking foolish. The child who entrusts his mother with the tin cans out of which he has conscientiously cut tops and bottoms and hammered the remainder flat has a right to feel let down if his mother neglects to turn them in to the proper authorities. Indifferent or lazy parents can do a lot of harm.

While the government in Washington struggles with the stupendous problem of manpower, knowing that the problem of womanpower too is just around the corner, the organization of "youth power" is just beginning to get under way. Though sporadic and ill-distributed, there are some promising signs.

Every one knows what excellent work the Scouts organizations have done in salvage work, partly because they got down to business and did a hard, necessary job well—partly because the grumpy

housewife is more willing to go look for old rubber or save tin cans for a nice looking youngster than for any other visitor who comes knocking at her door. Most of the youth organizations offer technical courses in mechanical fields, in food conservation, and—what will be needed increasingly as women enter industry—in the field of child care and home relief. The schools are making a beginning too and offer evening extension courses of many kinds. Boys clubs make model airplanes of very genuine use in the training of an aviation cadet. Through the Four H Clubs New Victory Corps, the Department of Agriculture in Washington has agents throughout the vast rural sections of the United States. The Land Army, the International Student Service, and the United States Employment Service offer a chance for older boys and girls to serve the nation through farm work. The Junior Work Camps are organizing vacation work projects for high-school youth. Several schools and colleges have similar plans.

All over America there has been a new surge of love for country. It was coming even before the war when artists and writers and poets and song writers among her native sons and daughters saw more and more deeply into the beautiful things of American life and American dreams—when the plain people everywhere knew more and more surely that they loved these things and that they belonged to them. The war has awakened us to the realization that all this is in peril and that every American must work and fight to preserve what he loves. But knowing and loving America must not blind us to her faults or keep us from acknowledging that great civilizations have fallen before because the enemy without found them weakened within. Those of us who are most concerned for youth and the future have a special responsibility to see that they face with clear courage the dark spots and the failures of this country as well as its beauties and achievements. Seeing these things clearly, youth cannot fail to be challenged by our failures and strive to find solutions. Along with the practical, the necessary, the im-

mediate job to be done for America in wartime, we must never forget that unless the world to come after is a better world, the war will have been fought in vain.

Much is said of the "American way" as though we had already found the right way, the final way. Yet perhaps the greatest thing about America is that it is still the "land of opportunity"—not in the old sense of limitless frontiers and boundless wealth, but because it is a place where the American dream may still come true. So far this dream has not come true. Political democracy itself is a faulty affair threatening constantly to fall into the hands of professional politicians and cliques unless we the people wake up and keep vigil. Industrial democracy is a concept rather recently born, but with it at last we have discovered that no man is "free" who lives under the constant threat of being without the necessities of life. "Freedom from want" is among the things we have now declared we are fighting to establish in the world. But how to do it? So much for the dream itself, but the work "of making it come true" is still to be done.

In spite of its great wealth and high standard of living, a third of the citizens of the United States are still improperly housed. In spite of the magnificence of its farm lands, the plight of the tenant farmer, the problems of soil conservation, and the distribution of the nation's goods to those who need it most are still to be solved. Until war industries made their appearance to give the unemployment problem a shot in the arm, we were still limping along in our attack on that problem and today have no clear plan on the books for meeting it more adequately when the end of the war ushers it in again. Despite the achievements of medical science, public health in this country is poor; opportunities for medical care in many sections are appallingly meager; despite our system of public education there are places where it has failed and where we lag in applying even the obvious remedy. The relations of capital and labor continue to be strained and the problem of how industry can

function through democratic and responsible channels are still to be worked out.

Though we are fighting a war against Hitler and the selfish doctrine of race superiority, America itself is riddled with race prejudice and religious intolerance. Anti-Semitism lurks always just beneath the surface. Injustice and intolerance to the Negro who forms at least a tenth of our population is a national problem of such magnitude that it may one day threaten our democracy at its very roots unless we study it *now*, plan *now*, take courageous action *now*. The lessons of this war should have taught us the folly of head-in-the-sand living. They should point clearly to the consequences of asking any group of citizens to fight for democracy when they are excluded from most of its fruits; to the consequences of forever pushing the Negro down to the bottom of the heap when there are jobs to be had, posts to be filled. The exclusion of Negroes from employment in many war industries against expressed injunctions from Washington have been a national disgrace in which both employers and labor unions have been guilty. Lately, however, certain unions have taken a courageous position not only in admitting Negroes to full membership but in insisting that Negro delegates be admitted to the hotels of the towns where they held conventions.

All these things are properly the concern of youth—not to solve today out of their inexperience, but to face today as problems to be studied, since tomorrow it is they who will be in the saddle and must meet them. They are not for the future, they are for now. Unless we are strong and united within, we cannot meet the enemy without. Unless our health is sound and our economic life is sound, and unless our citizens of whatever color or religion or national origin or social status know that they are fighting for a world in which their chance to have the good things of life is not handicapped at the outset, we will never be able to fight this fight to victory. If we lose it, it will be because of these inner weak-

nesses, not because our potential strength falls short of the enemy's.

This future world in which our children will lead their lives and rear *their* children is most deeply the concern of parents. Our problems whether national or international are not alone for statesmen, for military men, or for scholars. They are for all who care what becomes of youth. Parents may no longer rest content merely as stay-at-homes. The duty to do well the small tasks of daily life has surely never meant that parents should cease to be citizens or give up the duty to feel deeply on matters of the state and of moral and spiritual truth. What our children need from their parents is something more than "instruction," important as this is. They need to discover that their parents are people of passionate convictions about things which they believe to be dearer than life itself. It is a solemn moment for a child when he discovers that his parents are deeply shaken by things greater than themselves, greater even than home and family, that there are things worth dying for, beliefs to which man dedicates himself without counting the cost. Although it takes years for a child to discover what these things are and why they are so precious, the moment that the discovery of their parents' fervor creates the first stir within him, the birth of an adult gets under way.

Parents, especially thoughtful parents, have been too tentative in what they have offered their children. They have been too afraid of being "unfair," or "imposing their own point of view" on a child, or of not allowing him "freedom to develop in his own way." Surely giving a child freedom to develop, a doctrine with which there is no quarrel, never meant muzzling the adults who are part of his life, or imposing on them the ridiculous obligation of "presenting both sides" in such a way that a young person is left with the conclusion that nothing, no matter how patently evil, can be called bad—that there is no truth, which, if somebody doubts it, may not as fairly be called untruth. The geographers of Columbus's day, in expounding the doctrine that the earth is round, never

cautioned their pupils to accept it tentatively since there were those who believed it to be flat. On the contrary, they stated flatly, "*This is true. That is false,*" and could not honorably do otherwise.

There are times, and one of them is certainly today, when the moral order requires the positiveness of science. Moral judgments, it is true, like scientific ones, must be based on knowledge. We need to understand. We need to explore quite dispassionately how movements like fascism and monsters like Hitler come into being to ensnare the minds and souls of thousands of relatively innocent men and women, how too the evils of our own country came to be. But just as we study crime, delinquency, perversion, and disease without doubting their evil, so also must we be clear where political and moral evils lie. To do anything else in the name of tolerance or liberalism is indeed to commit moral suicide.

What parents will teach their children will depend ultimately on what they themselves believe. If we, who are parents today, believe nothing much; if the moral universe has, for us, no great realities; if the spectacle of injustice does not make us burn to set it right; if human suffering touches in us nothing that impels us to take action; if the spectacle of power for the sake of enslaving the majority of mankind does not inspire us to build our own strength great in order to free it—then indeed our children will be spiritually empty. No church or school in the world to whom we may entrust their education can ever atone for so devastating a loss. What we tell our children can be nothing but what we know ourselves, not what we know to say with our lips, but what we are so deeply committed to with our lives that though we say nothing our children find it out from the moment they are born and so cannot fail to carry it with them into maturity.

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SCHOOL CHILDREN IN WARTIME

J. LOUISE DESPERT

INTRODUCTION

The importance of the school, considerable as it is in peace, becomes paramount in wartime. The literature which has recently come from England and other countries engaged in active war operations emphasizes this importance. In England, the closing of the schools was soon recognized as an unwise move, since it helped increase juvenile delinquency and the breaking down of morale. The literature also shows that teachers not only continued to function as educators, and morale builders; they also participated in the many investigations carried out in schools, reception centers, and foster homes. Such investigations aimed at gaining some insight into the problems of children in wartime.

The English literature, chiefly concerned with the problem of evacuation, is often confusing and contradictory. This, undoubtedly, is due to the fact that systematic investigations were not carried out, through lack of preparation, funds, or adequately trained people. It is difficult to analyze the factors involved in the apparent discrepancies. Authors are not agreed on the increase of delinquency, the frequency, intensity, and permanency of symptoms, the age groups most affected by the war, the conditions that made for good adjustment in foster homes, the intellectual status as a factor in adaptation, etc. Symptomatology is, in general, poorly defined, and the material lacks organization. Some English writers, such as Burt, Valentine, Bowley, and Vernon, have been aware of the discrepancies and deficiencies; and Thomas concluded, "There are few safe generalizations either about the material conditions or the personalities concerned in evacuation." On one point there is almost complete agreement; namely, that the effects of evacuation were worse than those of bombing, owing to the separation of the

children from their parents. The symptom most frequently reported by the English writers was enuresis. Another point on which there was fairly general unity of opinion, though the evidence was retrospective, was that children who presented difficulties during the time of observation had had previous difficulties. There is an almost universal agreement on the need to preserve the family unity, and especially to avoid separation of the younger children from their parents.

Few reports have thus far appeared on the reactions of American children to the war. For this reason a report of a study recently completed in the Payne Whitney Nursery School may be of interest at this time.

PAYNE WHITNEY NURSERY SCHOOL STUDY OF CHILDREN'S
REACTIONS TO THE WAR

Studies on personality development in young children have been carried out since 1937 at the Payne Whitney Nursery School. Detailed behavior observations are made daily on the children; complete mechanical recordings of individual play sessions are obtained. For the description of the method used in this investigation, the reader is referred to "A Method for the Study of Personality Reactions in Pre-school Age Children by Means of Analysis of Their Play." In 1940 a special study of unselected total records was initiated; namely, the study of anxiety and fears in young, normal children.

Directly after the entrance of the United States into the war, a circular was sent to the parents of 144 children who had been admitted to the Payne Whitney Nursery School from 1932 to 1942. However, since research as described above was initiated in 1937, report of findings is, in the main, based on the records of 63 children admitted from 1937 to 1942. The following is a copy of the circular addressed to the parents:

Suggestions Which Might Help in the Reporting of Observations

- Have the children talked about the war? (Please indicate the age of the children whose reactions are described by you.)
- If so, can you recall what they have said and in what circumstances? What explanations have been given about the war? (By parents, teachers, others.) About the present emergency? (Air-raid alarms, blackouts, possible death, and injuries.)
- Do they listen to the radio? Or ask questions about news in the newspapers? Reaction to motion pictures with war as a theme or newsreels. (Anxiety, indifference, etc. Give words.)
- What is their reaction to the information obtained through above? (As much as possible, quote exact words.)
- What is the family's general feeling about the war situation as brought home to the children? Confidence about the ultimate end? Uncertainty about the ability to cope with a possible attack? Etc.?
- Is there any one in the family who is especially anxious? If so, what is the relation to the child under consideration? What influence on the child?
- Has the child shown changes in behavior which may be related to the war situation, either chronologically, spontaneously by the child, or as observed by the parents? (Irritability, restlessness, talkativeness, shyness, lack of playfulness, fears, nightmares, bed wetting, nail biting, change in appetite, vomiting, unwillingness to have adults leave the house, etc.)
- Have the children's games changed? Listlessness, quieter play? More aggressive games? Requests for guns, swords, soldiers, etc? Or, on the contrary, a feeling of taboo about aggressive games? How has this situation been handled?
- When expressing fear as related to the war, was that fear about parents, self, others? Fear of death? Lack of food? Fear of loss of individual property and economic security? Fear of people or specific individuals?
- Have there been expressed feeling of hostility or hatred toward a people, or individuals? If so, in what terms?

The most conspicuous finding was that all children who became anxious at the outset of the war had previously shown anxiety reactions of varying degree and intensity. The war had served to reactivate an actual or latent problem. Such children had been insecure and had shown a certain rigidity of personality, marked especially by apprehensiveness before new situations or unknown people. Analysis of the records showed that the children's insecurity was referable to their unsatisfactory relations to one or both parents. A child who feels sure of his parents' love seems to trust his parents to deal adequately with any danger threatening him. However, not all children who had shown anxiety in the course of their earlier development exhibited anxiety as a result of the war. The close relation between the child's and his parents' own insecurity ties up closely with a statement made early by the writers of *The Cambridge Evacuation Survey*; namely, that further evacuation plans should consider "what might be called the 'nervous family' as well as the nervous child."

The principal manifestations of anxiety aroused by the war were: clinging to the mother; excessive concern over the war, associated with repetitive questioning; mildly compulsive behavior; night terrors; increased motor activity and restlessness; irritability; apprehensiveness about unfamiliar activities; feeding problems; vomiting. The older children also showed aggressive behavior, fears, and compulsions. Enuresis was not reported.

Very young children did not show any anxiety referable to the war, owing to their lack of intellectual insight. Such children used war terminology dissociated from its emotional content. The Payne Whitney Nursery School is so located that the children are exposed almost daily to the machinery of war: they see warships, guns, tanks, planes, etc. Girl No. 55, I.Q. 155, the younger of two children, says:

I'm going to tell you a story. The daddy was working at a desk and a bomb came and fell, and the daddy shooted at it with water. Then an-

other bomb came and fell and the daddy shot at it with his gun. Then a bomb came and broke the house all down, and the people all said, "Bring me a house. Bring me toilets and food and houses." . . . One day I make a gun, I shoot myself in the war, then I get killed.

Another illustration is shown in a conversation between one boy and two girls, four to five years of age, who talk about Germans and the war:

Who has got the right time? I have twenty of seven. M——, what have you?

Eight o'clock.

Oh, hurry and clean the house before the Germanies come. Oh, they're at the door—the German people.

Oh, tell them to go home and come at ten o'clock.

Very young children, however, react strongly to their parents' anxiety, irrespective of word content and intellectual insight.

Whenever children showed anxiety, they also exhibited spontaneous mechanisms obviously set as defenses against it. Abreactive play belongs here: war games, aggressive games, often associated with destructive tendencies. "Doing something about it" is another mechanism. Several of the children were very creative about ways and means of dealing with the war, and two of them formulated "good plans": one (boy, 9 years, 0 months, I.Q. 122) for the invasion of Germany; the other (girl, 6 years, 3 months, I.Q. 129, 130), for the raising of the Normandie from her pier. Both children proposed to submit their plans to the President of the United States.

Participation, as a spontaneous reaction, can also be interpreted as a defense set against anxiety. This is illustrated by a boy L.E., the older of two children, I.Q. 126, who was 10 years, 2 months old at the time of Pearl Harbor. He was admitted to the Payne Whitney Psychiatric Clinic at 9 years, 2 months, for "stuttering." As observed in the clinic, this was a severe, predominantly tonic speech disorder, with associated vasomotor manifestations, dysfunction in

respiratory rhythm, and facial tics. Interviews at the clinic in the course of one year had shown the case to be one of anxiety neurosis with obsessive-compulsive features, and speech dysfunction. The father was an insecure, indecisive individual. The mother, a domineering, rigid woman with exacting standards, played an important part in the genesis of the neurosis. The child was hostile to his younger sibling, a girl, who was the mother's favorite child. For lack of space, only the data pertinent to the point under consideration are presented. At the time of New York's first air-raid alarm, the boy showed an exacerbation of his main symptoms; namely, stuttering and anxiety. He had many dreams in which he tried to escape bombing by making off on his bicycle. At the first opportunity, he offered his services as a messenger between air-raid-warden posts, and was able to get a great deal of relief in this activity, until, for extraneous reasons, his services were no longer requested.

The spontaneous defense mechanisms cited above are familiar to the therapist, and in his treatment approach he makes use of them. It is also a well-established fact that one of the most important phases of a morale-building program is participation in the war effort. Dealing with realities alleviates the anxiety about possible impending dangers.

Hero worship, also a protective mechanism, is seen in the case of a boy of 7 years, who has "papered" the walls of his room with pictures of General MacArthur.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Because of fundamental differences in sources of information and methods of approach, it is impossible to make an adequate comparison between the reports which have come out of England and other warring countries and the reports on American children's reactions to the war. However, from the totality of the reports, a few conclu-

sions may be reached, and their positive aspect outlined in the form of suggestions.

1. *Preparation for emergencies.* If and when air-raid alarms or bombings become realities, the teacher's responsibility will be greatly increased, since the largest group affected by such emergencies seems to have been children of elementary-school age. The fact that all children who developed anxiety symptoms had been anxious previously emphasizes the need for early recognition of those children who might become upset. Teachers have, over other individuals, the advantage of their knowledge of children in their charge. They know who among them has shown a tendency to become upset under stress (illness, or death in the family, change of class, separation from familiar playmates, frustration as a result of failure, etc.). Such children require additional support. Attention is called especially to quiet, inhibited children who experience difficulties with changes in routine. Rigidity of the personality with tendencies toward compulsive (repetitive) behavior rather than aggressive manifestations represents a significant danger signal. In organizing the groups, leaders should be selected among the more stable children, and activities without much responsibility assigned to the more anxious individuals. The less stable children could thus be inconspicuously supported by more stable ones. The entrusting of responsibilities to leaders holds true of teachers as well as children, and the personalities of teachers, usually well known to their principals, should be taken into account in general planning. The immediate effects (on her group) of the teacher's anxiety in times of emergency need not be emphasized. A careful analysis of the reactions of school children following the first air-raid alarm in New York should bring out sharp differences between the degrees in the intensity and the duration of symptoms as related to group reactions and personal problems.

Since the child's security and stability have their roots in the

family constellation, the orientation of the problem of the child's welfare in wartime cannot be purely individual. Its solution reaches out beyond the confines of child guidance. Mental hygiene has done much to spread an awareness of the significance of behavior distortions and emotional conflicts, and to encourage early seeking of psychiatric help. In this connection, teachers are often the agency for referral, since deviations from normal behavior in many cases are observed for the first time in the school. In this area, again, teachers have a role to play, owing to their knowledge of the parents' attitudes. While this knowledge may be somewhat limited, since it proceeds from superficial contacts, when added to the insight into the child's own attitudes, it may help to build up an integrated picture of much significance for the early recognition of neurotic behavior, both in the child and his parents.

As regards evacuation, the decision rests upon military authorities, though planning for evacuation and reception care has been prepared by several military and civilian organizations. If and when evacuation is considered necessary, teachers are bound to play an important part for which they are now preparing.

2. *School activities.* It is recalled that participation in the war effort is a powerful mechanism to allay anxiety. The Russian reports have stressed this aspect of school life and the adaptation of the school program to the communal needs created by the war; and in the United States, school children have contributed much to the salvage campaign, buying of war stamps, etc. One of the anxious children of the Payne Whitney Nursery School study (boy No. 16, 9 years, 0 months, I.Q. 122) says, "The real difference between children and grown-ups is this. [Holds his hands a foot or so apart] . . . Children should be allowed to play a more active part than eating nutritious food and getting plenty of sleep."

Boys from 15 to 18 or 20 (depending on the ultimate outcome of the draft) have more to offer than has been asked of them so

far. To a child under 10, a boy of 16 or 17 is a man. His moral influence over the younger children could be very valuable at a time when the male figure has been removed from the family group, either as father or older brother. This is especially true of boys for whom the father's or older brother's induction means more than the removal of their presence, but is unconsciously interpreted as a threat to the male sex. In the elaboration of plans for defense nursery schools, kindergartens, and recreation centers, women have been called upon to volunteer. Adolescent boys could be constructively used in a similar capacity. In the reports on the initial increase in juvenile delinquency, two observations have a significant relation to this point: the increase in delinquency for New York white children (first 6 months of 1942) was 23 per cent in the 7-to-15-year-old group; reports from England have stressed the absence of the father as a factor in the breaking down of discipline. The writer has, with striking clinical results, suggested the bringing of a male individual into the home when a young child has become aggressive, or, on the contrary, overdependent on his mother or other female members of the family.

The continuity of the child's relation to his father is essential to his emotional adjustment. For the young child it is to a large extent by concrete means that this continuity can be assured. Exchanges of small tokens, personal notes and letters, bits of drawing, collecting of insignia, and data on the arms in which the father serves, etc., are concrete expressions of his affection and admiration for his father. While the bulk of such expressions come from the home, the school can help in keeping alive the image of the father, or the "big brother."

Pamphlets from the Children's Bureau and the Office of Civilian Defense deal adequately with many details of children's and adolescents' participation in the war effort, and the role of the school in upholding the principles of democracy.

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 38. Caroline B. Zachry, Research in Child and Youth as Defense Effort. American Orthopsychiatric Association meeting, February 1942.
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FEDERAL AID FOR EDUCATION BILL S. 1313

All school administrators and teachers should interest themselves in the Federal-aid-for-education provisions of the present bill before Congress, S. 1313.

Probably never before in the history of our nation have the development and conservation of human resources been of more vital importance. Justly proud of an enviable record of education for a participation in our national war effort, school officials have a right to demand Federal support in meeting the imposed restrictions and increased demands growing out of that effort.

In the interest of a generation of frustrated youths, the enormous responsibility that will be passed on to them must be eased, as largely as possible, by the best training that it is possible for us to give them. Such opportunities to equip themselves for the long and difficult task that confronts them must be equalized and nationwide, if they are to bear the burden successfully.

Bulletins, copies of Bill S. 1313, and other information relating to Federal aid for education, can be secured from the National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington, D. C.

HIGH SCHOOL VICTORY CORPS

ETHEL PERCY ANDRUS

Youth is the age of idealism, energy, patriotism, and tremendous capacity for production. Yet last year, from Maine to California, high-school boys and girls were confused, restive, questioning "What can we do to help?" Today from Washington the challenging answer has been given:

"Join the High School Victory Corps. Prepare for service tomorrow in the armed forces by preparing for service in the high school today. Your nation needs you, needs your strength, your resourcefulness, your youth, but more even she needs your skill, your techniques, your schooling. She needs trained manpower, manpower of both sexes, grounded in mathematics, in science, in electricity, in aerodynamics, in language skills; she needs with that trained manpower, strength, endurance, precision, and discipline; she needs you, the best you that you and the high school can make of you. Your school and you yourself, may not—must not—fail her."

To mobilize high-school students for this more effective preparation and for participation in wartime service, the United States Office of Education working in conjunction with the War, Navy, and Civil Aeronautics Departments and the War Manpower Commission held in Washington, August 28-31, 1942, a National Institute on Education and the War. The President sent to the Conference the following statement:

To the Educators of the United States:

Our schools, public and private, have always been molds in which we cast the kind of life we wanted. Today, what we all want is victory, and beyond victory a world in which free men may fulfill their aspirations. So we turn again to our educators and ask them to help us mold men and women who can fight through to victory. We ask that every schoolhouse become a service center for the home front. And we pray that our young

people will learn in the schools and in the colleges the wisdom and forbearance and patience needed by men and women of good will who seek to bring to this earth a lasting peace.

[Signed] Franklin D. Roosevelt

The keynote speech of the Conference was made at the opening session by Lieutenant General Brehon B. Somervell, Commanding General, Services of Supply, War Department:

We are engaged in total war. . . . The job of the armed forces is to win this total war on the battlefield. The job of industry is to furnish the weapons and supplies needed by the armed forces to carry on total war. The job of the schools in this total war is to educate the nation's manpower for war and for the peace that follows.

We can lose this total war on the battlefield as a direct result of losing it on the educational front. Education is the backbone of an army. This was never more true than it is today—now.

Our Army today is an army of specialists. Out of every 100 men inducted into the service, sixty-three are assigned to duties requiring specialized training. We aren't getting those sixty-three specialists through the induction centers. But modern mechanized warfare dictates that we must have them.

Taking only those specialties in which the Army has found major shortages, we find a total of 62,853 lacking in every 300,000 men inducted. That adds up to 838,040 in an Army of 4,000,000 men.

Yes, these shortages of trained manpower—of men trained in the fundamentals of jobs that must be done in a modern army—are much too serious. The situation is not getting better. It is fast getting worse. The specialist field is being combed and recombed. The supply of trained men is dwindling by the day.

We're in a hurry to put into the field a fighting force capable of overcoming those who seek to destroy everything for which America stands; who seek to destroy America herself. Our job is to teach men to fight. We cannot long continue to take the time and facilities needed for this job and use them on a job which can have been done before the induction of men into the Army. This is your job in this total war.

It is the job of the schools and colleges of America to provide the opportunity for every youth to equip himself for a place in winning the war.

You must do this, regardless of cost, time, inconvenience, the temporary sidetracking of non-war objectives, or even the temporary scrapping of peace-time courses.

There must be an all-out effort on the education front. Let us be realistic. Every able-bodied boy is destined at the appointed age for the armed services.

Is this necessary? It is so necessary that all other values depend upon it.

Paul V. McNutt, Federal Security Administrator and Chairman of the War Manpower Commission, in his speech said:

The United States Government needs education today as it never did in the history of our Nation. Our schools are part of our victory production assembly lines. Our schools are also part of the Army and Navy training program.

There have been many definitions of education. I will give you a short one suited to this grave hour. Education is the shortest distance between two points. Our Nation today is a contestant in the greatest war of all history. All our energies, all our resources of men and materials, are being mobilized to carry us from the position of contestant to another point—victory. Education can help us to shorten the distance to victory. Our Army and Navy are in themselves huge training institutions. Many of our industries maintain training-within-industry programs. But our schools, colleges, and libraries are the institutions to which we turn for basic training. The better they do their task, the shorter the road to victory.

And so was launched the High School Victory Corps, a national volunteer organization designed to mobilize high-school youth. Its sponsor is the United States Office of Education working in conjunction with the Departments of War, Navy, and Civil Aeronautics. It is the realistic answer to "What shall we do?"

Youth is thus brought into the coöperative business of making possible a victory for the Allies, and youth proudly accepts his role of recognized participant and contributor. The high-school lad realizes that with the lowering of the draft age he will soon be in the struggle. He realizes too with the pyramiding need for planes, for ammunition, for food, and for provisions that his sister and his

sweetheart are as surely drafted. Something stabilizing, yet something dynamic, has come into the lives of high-school boys and girls and into their school. There is the urgency, the desire to measure up, the need of meeting exacting requirements, the novelty of knowing that the Army and the Navy and the Air Corps are counting on them, will be interested in their high-school work, will be wanting to know if they are physically fit, if they have courage and endurance, if they have learned teamwork with their fellows and their school officers, if they can take it and give it and like it. This war and the nation's mobilization of youth into the Victory Corps have dignified high schools themselves and their work.

To qualify for membership is now the endeavor of every high-school youth, to deserve well of the honor is their hope and their intention. To the teachers, the call is equally challenging. They are in the Army now, and eager to win their "E" for war service, determined to give every one of their students the best of themselves, and intent that their pupils qualify in basic training according to their capacity. As never before, teachers are considering themselves and their work significant, realizing that they must shoulder duties new and heavier, and that if fighting with learning is the slogan of victory, a close correlation of schooling and war effort becomes imperative.

Since schools have become a part of the victory production assembly line, teachers are reviewing former techniques and practices. They are screening out the obsolete, the present nonessentials, and the "postponeables," and strengthening and emphasizing only those that survive the acid test of the war needs of the nation and the emergency needs of the community. High schools of 1942 decidedly cannot afford to do business as usual.

The announced objectives of the Corps are:

1. Guidance of youth into that critical service or occupation in which the student can make the most effective war contribution

2. Wartime citizenship to ensure better understandings of all phases of the war, its significance, its progress, and its problems
3. Physical fitness
4. Voluntary military drill for prospective members of armed forces
5. Competence and adaptation in science and mathematics
6. Preflight training for those preparing for various types of air service
7. Pre-induction training for critical occupations in armed forces and war production
8. Community services including preparation for work in essential service occupations of civilian life

Application for general membership is made in writing, and is itself a pledge of earnest endeavor and dedicated effort toward preparation for adequate service.

The student's program of studies, if approved, must include a program of school courses and of physical fitness appropriate to his abilities and needs, in the light of his probable contribution to the nation's war effort. His extracurricular activities should be at least one important continuing or recurring wartime activity or service, such as some phases of civilian defense, Red Cross service, scale model airplane building, farm aid or part-time employment, salvage campaigns, care of small children of working mothers, gardening, etc.

Upon acceptance for general membership—and qualification is within the reach of all—the member is authorized to wear the general insignia of the Victory Corps, a chevron of vermillion red in the form of a block V. The ceremony of induction into membership may serve not only as a distinction to the members but also as a combination school and community celebration for participation in by patriotic societies, veteran groups, community organizations, parents, and members of the armed forces, all of whom may be lay officers or advisers of the Corps.

Students within two years of completing high school are eligible for admission to one of five special divisions of the Victory Corps with qualifications representing the most effective preparation for one type of service or support within the framework of the high-school curriculum. The uniform organizational pattern throughout the nation plans for:

<i>Division</i>	<i>Insignia Device</i>
Air Service	a plane propeller
Land Service	a conventionalized eagle
Sea Service	a fouled anchor
Production Service	blade of wheat surrounded by a gear
Community Service	a square cross

Each special service division has an insignia which may be worn on Victory Corps caps, armbands, or on uniforms, a device in white on a disc of navy blue, superimposed upon the vermillion red V of the Corps.

All five special divisions have a series of five or six qualifying hurdles, three of which must be met for acceptance. In all divisions, the pursuing of a program of physical fitness and a program of military drill meets two of these prerequisites. The other requirements apply to the specific service. The potential flying or ground officer in the Air Service Division, for instance, should be able on graduation to offer three years of mathematics and a year of physics and preferably in addition a course in preflight aeronautics. The potential ground crew maintenance man, on the other hand, should offer preflight aeronautics and work in automobile mechanics, radio, electricity, or aircraft maintenance or repair. Requirements facing the Land Service Division are a minimum of one year each of mathematics, science, and shop. The Sea Service Division requires courses in mathematics preferably through plane trigonometry and at least one year in science, preferably physics, also, if possible, the study of the elements of navigation. Besides

courses essentially prevocational in nature—agricultural, trade, or industrial—the Production Service Division requires part-time work, either paid or voluntary, in some form of production. Members of the Community Service Division should be planning for work in community or other service occupations such as teaching, social work, medicine, nursing, dentistry, or other professional service, distributive or commercial service, homemaking, child care, home nursing, nutrition, or similar work.

Large schools and small schools alike are challenged. No school can fail to join nor fail to do its part. It may be that only one or two periods a day can be devoted to some form of pre-induction training; it may be the entire plant and its facilities will be dedicated for the duration. It may be only particular students may be provided special training. But large schools or small schools, the nature and number of special service divisions in any one school will be dependent upon many factors, such as its curriculum, its equipment, and its personnel. However concentration in the student's program toward his own war future and responsibilities should be definite, practical, and immediate.

It is in this field of student purpose and heightened morale and in the concomitant curricular changes that the Victory Corps makes its greatest contributions. No matter the size of the school or the faculty, the deep-felt wish and need of schools to dedicate themselves to the nation's cause has long been a determining guide point for their planning.

The school's direct participation in the community's effort develops an ever closer mutual acquaintanceship, friendship, and esteem with its patrons. The agricultural projects of the school on the school and the home grounds become matters of community interest and pride. Youth shares with its parents the obligation of producing Red Cross goods, of making model airplanes, of participating in community defense work, in child care, in assisting rationing boards, etc. The awareness of need of conservation gives

impetus to salvage drives, to home and school canning and preserving, to the required economies of home and school materials. All these activities grow in significance as patrons, parents, and high-school personnel team together. Adults who have not crossed the threshold of a school since their own pupil days form the neighborly habit of dropping in to see how this or that project is coming along, offering help and suggestions, and unconsciously becoming supporters and admirers of their children at work and their children's teachers. In such an atmosphere of mutual effort and esteem the adaptation of the instructional program is effected with community approval, for parents realize the necessity of preserving essentials to "all time" needs, and yet of planning for the emergency, and also of anticipating the problems of peace and reconstruction.

The High School Victory Corps urges the secondary schools to organize their classroom offerings and their extraclassroom activities and their personnel program to further the war effort. No matter the size of the school good study habits and habits of neatness, accuracy, self-reliance, and integrity of personal effort can be developed, and all are basic to successful service in the Armed Forces.

The offerings of the English and the social-studies classes can be vitalized in any size of high school by remembering wartime objectives. Patriotism, American idealism, war problems, a positive teaching of the meaning of democracy need no new texts, merely a new emphasis on our history and traditions. An understanding and an appreciation of our allies are essential and the basis for making possible the winning of the peace after the winning of the war offers a fertile field for the potential philosopher and statesman.

According to the schools' equipment, teaching materials, and personnel it would be desirable to introduce preflight courses in aeronautics. This provision might be satisfied—if no more can be done—by thorough courses in mathematics and physics and a pro-

gram of physical fitness. In thousands of schools it should be possible to add the study of aircraft structures, aerodynamics, power plants, meteorology, communication, and navigation.

Brigadier General Laurence F. Kuter, Deputy Chief of Staff, United States Army Air Forces, urged competency in studies when he discussed "What the Army Air Forces Need from Education." He said,

The 125,000 airplane program for 1943 is closely related to an Army Air Force of approximately two million men. Seventy per cent or 1,400,000 of these men must be given military training as technicians. That number is almost half the total number of young men in senior high schools.

Pre-induction training for the armed forces and training for civilian occupations and services also should be provided. The vocational education program can be expanded and redirected; girls must be provided with occupational courses. School facilities must be used to the utmost in the preliminary preparation where possible of mechanical and radio specialists, auto and airplane repair men, photographers, nurses, cooks, etc.

Perhaps the greatest concern lies in the fields of mathematics and science, from which technology derives its basic language. More students this year should take these subjects, and more students gain a thorough mastery and ability to transfer the learnings gained to practical situations. The need for high schools to stress training in mathematics and physics was repeated over and over again by representatives from the Army, the Navy, and the Air Forces.

No article on the High School Victory Corps could fail to quote J. W. Studebaker, United States Commissioner of Education, the man who envisioned the corps on a national pattern, not necessarily a national organization. His words are challenging.

We are engaged in a war for survival. This is a total war—a war of armies and navies, a war of factories and farms, a war of homes and

schools. Education has an indispensable part to play in total war. Schools must help to teach individuals the issues at stake; to train them for their vital parts in the total war effort; to guide them into conscious personal relationship to the struggle.

Daily the realization grows that we are in for a long hard struggle. Facts must be realistically faced. Only the dumbest sort of wishful thinking could cause any of us to doubt that education too must undertake conversion to the business of total war. War is a hard, brutal business. It is pain, and heartache, and frustration. It means plans deferred and careers interrupted—but it must be faced. We are in this war and the only way out is through.

Ethel Percy Andrus, Ph.D., is the principal of the Abraham Lincoln High School, Los Angeles, California. When the editors of *THE JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY* asked the United States Office of Education for an article on the High School Victory Corps program, Miss Andrus was nominated to write the article.

THE EDUCATION OF WOMEN

Records disclose that the number of women attending college in the United States has increased more than 125,000 times during the past century. It is reported that by 1937 more than 500,000 were so enrolled. In 1837 the total number of such collegians was exactly four, enrolled at Oberlin College, and the first women to be admitted to institutions of higher learning in this country.

In breaking a precedent for the first time, that year Oberlin College announced that its door has been opened to "Young ladies of good minds, unblemished morals, and respectable attainments." Although none other of the fifty colleges of that day would admit women students, only four registrants responded.

Today there are 120 women's colleges and 80 men's colleges. Despite the early and continuing opposition to coeducation broken by Oberlin for the first time in 1837, there are now 451 coeducational colleges.

THE MORALE NEEDS OF YOUTH*

HARVEY ZORBAUGH

I have selected a text for what I want to say tonight. It consists of Shakespeare's words: "care I for the limb, the thewes, the stature, bulk and big assemblance of a man! Give me the spirit."

It is my conviction, in thinking about the needs of youth, that we have become prone to think too largely of the things that build the "assemblance of a man," too little of the things that determine the "spirit." Perhaps this is an inevitable result of the fact that the problems of youth first challenged our attention on a major scale during our deepest economic depression. Jobs—and the food, clothes, shelter, medical care they made possible—had to be found for youth. But finding them, and taking pride in the way they built "limb, thewes, stature, bulk," we neglected to inquire closely enough as to whether they were sufficient to feed youth's spirit.

Pursuing this conviction, I pass over the familiar inventories of the problems and needs of youth—oft repeated, and by those vastly more competent than I to discuss them—and turn directly to a consideration of the spiritual problems and needs of the youth of today.

By "spirit" I mean merely those characteristics of the psyche which determine the person's capacity to stand up to, maintain his integrity under, deal effectively with the inevitable stresses of living, not only as an individual, but also as a member of the community. I feel sure, had Shakespeare been with us today, he would have accepted the word "morale" as equivalent of what he called the "spirit."

It is about the morale of youth I wish to speak this evening—its importance, its problems, its needs. But, first, perhaps I should clarify what I mean by morale.

We all recognize morale when we see it. At a small dinner in New York, not long ago, the captain of a British cruiser, laid up in

* A paper read before the National Conference on the Family, 1942.

Brooklyn Navy Yard for repairs, was telling of his experiences in Crete. The going had been heavy—for days enemy bombers had been constantly diving upon the ship while not a British fighter was to be seen in the sky. They were scouring offshore waters, with a supporting destroyer a mile ahead, when suddenly out of the clouds four dreaded Stukas plummeted down upon them. Perhaps fearing the anti-aircraft guns of the cruiser, they dove straight upon the destroyer.

There was a deafening roar as four heavy bombs exploded almost simultaneously, and the destroyer was obscured by flame, smoke, and spray. The captain ordered full speed to the spot, and watched through his glasses for the oil, wreckage, and men struggling in the sea that he expected to be all that remained of the destroyer. But as the smoke cleared there, though rocking heavily, the destroyer miraculously rode. Then up ran a flag, another and another. The cruiser's captain, expecting word that the destroyer was sinking within minutes, already was ordering his boats manned. A fourth flag ran up the destroyer's yard, and through his glasses the cruiser's captain deciphered the letters P-H-E-W, phew! That was all and the destroyer steamed off about her business.

We all recognize such behavior as reflecting extraordinary morale. But when we try to define morale we seem to get ourselves into difficulty. *The American Journal of Sociology* and *The Journal of Educational Sociology* both have devoted recent issues to morale. In reading them one encounters nearly as many definitions of morale as there are contributors. But emerging from the lot of them, and coinciding closely with my own conclusions from experience in attempting to reestablish morale through the clinic, is the idea that morale is fundamentally a conception of oneself as a member of the group.

This fact is well illustrated by the story of another Englishman, this time an explorer, who, in the middle of the last century had

penetrated through the Sudan into North Africa and, with one of his bearer boys, had been separated from the rest of his expedition and captured by native tribesmen. Confined in a hut, he listened for hours to the sounds of drums and powwow as the head men of the village debated his fate. Toward midnight several of them entered the hut and said to him in effect: "You are English. You are Christian (the tribesmen were nominally Mohammedan). Here (presenting him with two twigs crossed and tied with a bit of grass) is your cross. Throw it upon the ground, spit on it, crush it under your heel and you go free. Otherwise you are to die. We give you until dawn to think it over." Then they left the hut.

During the hours that remained to him, the explorer wrote a long letter to an old friend, a letter he smuggled out to the bearer boy who had hung about his hut, and which ultimately reached England. After telling the story of his predicament and the decision he faced, he wrote: "I am making a choice that, even to me, is incredible. I have never thought of myself as a Christian. I only know to desecrate the cross is something no Englishman could do."

Here again we recognize morale. Moreover, we get a glimpse of its essential meaning—a controlling conception of self as a member of the group. "I only know to desecrate the cross is something no Englishman could do!"

Such a controlling conception of self as a member of the group is built, I believe, through a series of identifications fostered by the sense of acceptance and belonging, the sharing of experience and so of goals and values, the feeling of adequacy as a group member that arises out of playing a recognized role within the group.

Certainly the clinician finds the failure of such identifications to be achieved or maintained, whatever the reasons for such failure, to be the primary cause of demoralization. The demoralized personalities we see in our clinics and consultation rooms are overwhelmingly characterized by a sense of lack of group support, social

rejection, and isolation; by a confusion over, resistance to, conflict with group values; by a feeling of the inadequacy of the roles they play in the groups of which they are a part.

Morale is built and maintained through experiences that facilitate and support identification with the group. Not only the experience of clinics but that of juvenile and domestic relations courts, of family service societies, indeed of all our social agencies confirms this fact. Even a cursory survey of what happened to personalities in England during the blitz would indicate that morale was highest in persons whose lives were best integrated with that of the community, that morale was facilitated as persons were drawn by the emergency into closer relationship with one another, that demoralization was far less likely to result from shock than from social dislocation.

I recognize, of course, that, being the sort of organisms we are, physical factors contribute to demoralization—that deprivation of fats, sugars, calcium, vitamin B₁, for example, will undermine morale. But these things will not build morale. Morale is built only in social living.

By morale, then, I mean a controlling conception of oneself as a member of the group—which enables one to stand up to, maintain his integrity under, deal effectively with the stresses of living; a conception that is built and supported by a set of group identifications—the sense of acceptance and belonging, of sharing experience, goods, and values, of playing a recognized role within the group; identifications that are built and maintained only through group experience.

It would seem to me to follow that problems of morale, and of demoralization, have their locus in the community's organization of group life, and the individual's experiences within that organization.

Turning, now, to the morale of youth today, one might fairly say at the moment that the major problem is to have their morale needs recognized. Our immediate safety depends, of course, upon the success of our military and economic efforts. Discussions of morale

naturally focus upon the morale of the adults who must carry out this effort and their supporting civilian population.

The morale of youth, for the time being, is largely forgotten. When we do consider it, it is negatively—not in terms of how morale may be built, but in terms of how demoralization may be prevented. As witness the discussions of fears aroused in children by the war, and how they may best be dealt with.

Once the first effort of our psychic and social mobilization is organized, however, recognition will be given the morale needs of youth, as happened in England. I need not stress the importance of this recognition. We might well win this war, and yet lose it, if the morale of our youth were forgotten. Youth's morale is the future of the way of life for which we are fighting.

Of the many problems involved in providing youth with a group experience that will build and maintain morale, the most critical, as I see it, arises out of the sharp cleavage between generations (the world of the child and that of the adult) which has grown up in our culture. Ultimately, we want morale to rest upon one's conception of oneself as a citizen of the larger community; yet developmental experience in our culture, particularly during the adolescent years, makes identification with the larger community difficult.

Margaret Mead, in her contrast of adolescent experience in Samoa and America, *Coming of Age in Samoa*, has strikingly documented this problem. Dollard has ably analyzed some of its implications in his discussion of "adolescence in America" in his book *Frustration and Aggression*. Every clinic working with adolescents encounters it in a variety of behaviors which, paraphrasing Alfred Adler, one might term "adult protest"—protest against the cultural role of the child.

I do not mean to imply that the adolescent has no group experience; but that his groups are to a large extent interstitial with reference to the organization of the life of the community. Many and

real as are the values of the group experiences offered by settlements, Christian associations, Scouts, boys' clubs, and similar "youth" organizations, they are experiences that occupy and enrich the cultural span of childhood, rather than afford the opportunity for a progressive integration and identification of youth with the community of adults.

The same is too largely true of the group experience afforded by the school—where youth is secluded within four walls from the life of the community. We all recall that during the depression we discussed the extension of schooling as a frank measure for occupying the time of youth for whom we could find no place in the life of the community.

This cleavage, I believe, presents the greatest obstacle to the growth and maintenance of morale in our youth today. Certainly it has played a major part in the demoralization of the adolescents we encounter in clinics and courts. Certainly it was a factor in the demoralization of many youth during the depression years. At narrowing this cleavage, any long-time program for the morale of youth should direct a major effort. Much can be accomplished, I believe, through a reorientation of the goals and programs of present youth agencies.

Nor should we forget that the war increases both the need and the opportunity for youth to feel it is part of the community, with a role to play in its life and defense. England early was faced with the necessity of youth's taking over many activities normally considered adult. The original defense program made places for youth down to fifteen years of age. As the war went on, it was found that these youth showed far fewer symptoms of its strain than those of eleven to fourteen. It has been found since that, to the extent significant community activities can be found for this age group, their strain is lessened.

I do not believe this fact is to be explained merely in terms of providing something to do, an outlet for tension. English experience

indicates that, for the majority of persons (and here I am speaking of adults), it is not merely something to do, but something "social" to do, that contributes most to the maintenance of morale. Fundamental, always, for adult and youth, is the role as member of the group.

There are innumerable ways in which, in meeting our own emergency, the living of youth may be integrated more significantly with that of the community. Numerous youth agencies are already re-orienting their programs in this direction. But so far as I can discover, they are as yet thinking in terms of what must be done that youth can do, as did also the English to begin with; are but vaguely aware of the meaning of what they are doing in terms of the basic morale needs of youth. The sooner they achieve such awareness, the more effective will be their contribution—both to maintaining youth's morale in this crisis, and building morale for the future.

In closing, I would like to spend a moment on the part of the family in building and maintaining the morale of youth, with particular reference to the impact of the war.

One need not stress before this audience the vital part that the family plays. It is within the family that the first of the series of group identifications out of which morale is built takes place. If this primary identification fails, later group identifications are more difficult; if it succeeds, later group identifications are vastly facilitated. Indeed, it is not infrequent to find morale resting largely upon one's conception of oneself as a member of the family group.

Edmond Taylor, author of *The Strategy of Terror*, tells of a gallant young French pilot's explanation of his courage. The young Frenchman said: "I am not a brave man, but I have a brave name. Every time I go up I am scared to death, but I have to go because my name is 'de Blanc'. If it were Dupont I would not fight. All the officers in my group have names that unscrew in the middle and that is why they are all brave."

Sometimes I wonder whether, as we work clinically with chil-

dren, we might not get farther if we spent a bit less time in attempting to manipulate relationships, a little more time in trying to improve the status of the family in the community, so that more children might, in effect, say, "I have a brave name."

The part played by the family role in building and maintaining youth's morale is doubly important in our and other western cultures, because of the cleavage of generations we have seen to be characteristic of these cultures. The family must, as best it may, bridge the gap left by a lack of transitional group experiences.

The stresses created within the family group by total war are already apparent in any considerable sampling of families, such as the case-load of our university clinic. There has already been too little sharing of group experience in a majority of these families; in many of them it has dropped to a hazardous minimum in the past six months as both fathers and mothers spend less and less time within the home. As the familiar, supporting pattern of family living is increasingly disrupted in these families, not only young children but adolescents show symptoms of a decreased security.

There is a credit as well as a debit side to the picture, however. A surprising number of more or less demoralized fathers and mothers, achieving a new sense of the significance of their roles in the community, have shown a heightening of morale which seems appreciably to have improved the morale of their children.

But the credits do not balance the debits. The impact of this war upon family life is beyond doubt a threat to the morale of youth, a threat that all agencies concerned with the family must coöperate to counteract.

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RESEARCH PROJECTS AND METHODS IN EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY

In order that this section of THE JOURNAL may be of the greatest possible service, its readers are urged to send at once to the editor of this department titles—and where possible descriptions—of current research projects now in process in educational sociology and also those projects in kindred fields of interest to educational sociology.

EVALUATION OF A PROGRAM OF CITIZEN TRAINING: A STUDY OF THE EIGHTH GRADES OF THE SECOND SUPERVISORY DISTRICT OF NASSAU COUNTY, NEW YORK¹

During the school year of 1941-1942 an evaluation program was conducted in seven suburban school systems of southern Nassau County, New York. The procedures involved were partially based on the techniques used by Howard E. Wilson² in his survey of citizenship education in New York State schools in general. Consequently, the study of the Nassau County schools presents comparisons with and contrasts to the results which Wilson reported for the State as a whole.

The Nassau County project as conducted by Arthur R. Olsen utilized several research techniques. Reading research was employed: first, to determine the national and State policies which form the basis of education for citizenship; second, to show the shifting of emphasis from factual to participating learning; and, third, to report the derivation of testing and evaluative materials related to civic competence. An experimental testing procedure was used to analyze areas of civic competence; *i.e.*, factual information, social concepts, attitudes, beliefs, and social skills. Finally, a questionnaire method was applied to determine the extent to which pupils utilize community resources and the relationship of such resources to the school citizenship program.

Conclusions drawn from the study are divided into two headings. One concerns certain evidences of civic competence associated with school-work. The other concerns evidences of civic competence in community

¹ A. R. Olsen, *An Evaluation of a Program of Citizenship Education—A Study of the Eighth Grades of the Second Supervisory District of Nassau County, New York*. New York: New York University, 1942 (unpublished Ed.D. document).

² H. E. Wilson, *Education for Citizenship* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1938).

activities. In the former group, it would appear that for these schools girls are superior to boys in mastery of factual knowledge, beliefs, attitudes, and skill abilities of map, chart, and graph interpretations. Boys in the same schools at the eighth-grade level have achieved a greater number of social concepts than girls. Both sexes evidenced liberal attitudes in regard to their relationship with fellow students; but less than fifty per cent of either sex would permit newspaper publication of criticism of the government.

In the sociological area of the study, pupils showed wide usage of community resources; this was evidenced by the extent and quality of their interests in radio programs, newspapers, book readings, motion pictures, and club activities. There is also evidence that pupils relate such activities and resources to schoolwork and school life. Of great significance was the fact that pupils who participated widely in club activities were more liberal in their expression of attitudes; conversely, pupils who were indifferent to club activities were less liberal in their expression of attitudes and beliefs.

The study has been submitted as a report to the schools in the area as a basis for further study of their school programs and will serve as a basis for revision of existing courses of study which supplement citizen education.

NEW YORK UNIVERSITY FILM LIBRARY

Films on child care available to educational and parent groups

In a time of war, when homes are disrupted because fathers are leaving to serve in the armed forces, and mothers are taking their places in the factories, the urgent need for trained workers to plan and care for the nation's children become daily more apparent.

"Children are the only future a nation has." We cannot ignore this challenge.

To aid all interested teachers and civilian defense leaders in programs of child care and education in schools and community centers, New York University Film Library offers the following films which have in common a concern with the development and care of young children.

A Child Went Forth. Because it effectively highlights a nursery camp situation and shows one way to solve the problem of our children in wartime should evacuation of our cities become necessary.

(2 reels, sound. Rental 1 day, \$3.00. Sale, \$72.00)

Balloons. Aggression and destruction games.

Finger Painting. The use of plastic materials by young children.

Frustration Play Techniques. Because these films, the first in a series produced by the Department of Child Study at Vassar College, are studies of normal personality development in young children, and demonstrate special techniques in the diagnosis of normal personality.

Balloons. (2 reels, sound. Rental 1 day, \$3.00. Sale, \$60.00)

Finger Painting. (2 reels, color, silent. Rental 1 day, \$6.00. Sale, \$125.00)

Frustration Play Techniques. (3½ reels, sound. Rental 1 day, \$4.00. Sale, \$80.00)

Five and Under. Because it shows how Great Britain has attempted to meet the emergency wartime needs of her very young children in nursery schools, day nurseries, and resident nurseries. England's experience will help us in the establishment and maintenance of our own child care centers.

(2 reels, sound. Rental 1 day, \$3.00. Sale, \$30.00)

Village School. Because it deals with the problems faced by a rural school teacher in England when city children are evacuated to her community. Her efforts to maintain the physical and mental health of the children under her care will be suggestive and useful to teachers.

(1 reel, sound. Rental 1 day, \$1.50. Sale, \$15.00)

Tomorrow Is Theirs. Because it deals with the adaptation of England's high-school programs to present war problems without lowering academic standards. High-school age boys make the adjustment to evacuation quarters—an interesting and educative experience.

(1 reel, sound. Rental 1 day, \$1.50. Sale, \$15.00)

Children from Overseas. Because this film shows English children evacuated to Canada in the early days of the war, and underscores some of the adjustments involved in the transfer to new homes and different ways of living.

(1 reel, sound. Rental 1 day, \$1.50. Sale, \$15.00)

Mother and Child. Because it emphasizes the importance of the coördination of medical and social services which England is maintaining in wartime for expectant mothers, infants, and preschool children.

(1 reel, sound. Rental 1 day, \$1.50. Sale, \$15.00)

Life Begins. Because this film offers a unique opportunity to study a normal infant's mental and physical development from birth to 18 months, making specific comparative studies of the various stages of growth. This is an overall view of Dr. Gesell's work at the Yale Clinic of Child Development.

(6 reels, sound. Rental 1 day, \$10.00)

And So They Live

The Children Must Learn

Because they emphasize the need for a more functional type of education in our schools by dramatizing the gap which exists in many areas (in this case the rural South) between the school curriculum and the social and economic conditions under which children live. Of interest not only for the educational implications, but also as documentary studies of nutritional deficiencies.

And So They Live. (3 reels, sound. Rental 1 day, \$4.00; 1-year lease, \$40.00; 3-year lease, \$80.00)

The Children Must Learn. (2 reels, sound. Rental 1 day, \$3.00; 1-year lease, \$30.00; 3-year lease \$60.00)

For Health and Happiness. Because this film offers a positive picture of the simple health and dietary practices which help to build healthy, happy young people.

(1 reel, color, sound. Rental 1 day, \$3.00)

These films are all 16 millimeter. For information on rental or purchase, address New York University Film Library, New York City.

BOOK REVIEWS

Resources for Victory, by JOHN E. ORCHARD. New York: Columbia University Press, 1942, 36 pages.

Professor Orchard's field of specialization is economic geography, and his contribution to the Columbia Home Front War-Books is this pamphlet on economic resources directed to the consumer. Each of the strategic war materials: steel, copper, aluminum; foods, rubber, etc., is analyzed in order to show the problems which it engenders for the United Nations, the comparative position of the Axis, and the implications for noncombatant Americans. The material of the booklet is well organized, and succinctly presented in a tempered, nonhysterical tone.

The Strength of Nations, by GEORGE SOULE. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1942, 268 pages.

The best single statement of the theme of the book is found on page 199, in the opening paragraph of Chapter IX: "Our chief hope for the avoidance of such disasters as depression and war, and the achievement of positive ends made possible by material progress, lies not in improvised or quack doctrines, not in the promises of new messiahs, and not in religious revivalism, but in a better application of scientific method to an understanding of man and society."

Mr. Soule's effort is a heartening one. To those working in some one of the fields of scientific or social discipline, the danger is a loss of perspective and so of proportion. The workers in special fields work to push back the frontiers of their separate areas, with little effort to coördinate their achievements with the developments in other fields. *The Strength of Nations* is an attempt at synthesis, a thing urgently needed at intervals of increasing frequency. It attempts to answer the question: What have the natural, physical, and social sciences to offer for the solution of social problems? No claim is made that this is the final summary, but the book does make a very satisfactory progress report.

An Appraisal of the Protocols of Zion, by JOHN S. CURTISS. New York: Columbia University Press, 1942, x + 106 pages.

Since 1903 anti-Semites have been using Protocols of Zion, the supposed Jewish conspiracy for world domination, to poison minds and spread race prejudice and hatred throughout the world.

The author, a descendent of an Anglo-Saxon family "that has been in America since the early Colonial days," has given us the final word on the "Protocols." As a linguist and scholar, Curtiss carefully checked all evidence written in many languages and proves, beyond any possible question, that the original book *Dialogues in Hell* by an obscure French journalist Maurice Joly, and the elaborations that have been worded into it by anti-Semites, fascists, and Nazi leaders, are deliberate and transparent forgeries. Joly, himself, had no interest in the Jews and wrote his monologue to discredit Napoleon the third's Second Empire.

Gullible sympathetic ears to bigotry and prejudice may benefit from the reply given by Serge Nilus, chief plagiarist and falsifier, who, when approached by the French Count Du Chayla for accepting the Protocols so implicitly, stated: "You know my favorite citation from St. Paul is 'The will of God is accomplished through human weakness.' The Protocols are false, but is it not possible that God should make use of them in order to expose the iniquity that is already approaching? Did not the Ass of Balaam utter prophecy? For the sake of our faith God can transfer the bones of the dog into sacred relics; He can also make the announcement of truth come out of the mouth of a liar" (p. 71).

Dr. Curtiss, with approval of many scholars of Columbia University, has rendered a great service to the cause of truth and justice in publishing this objective study of sources and authentication.

The Guilt of the German Army, by HANS ERNEST FRIED. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1942, xi + 426 pages.

In this volume, as its title indicates, the author tries to show the extent to which the German professional army of the first World War identified itself with the National Socialist movement. The evidence which he methodically assembles points to a close association between the disbanded officers of the earlier struggle and the sponsors of National Socialism. He traces the history of militarism throughout the period from 1918 to its present manifestations, pointing out how much more serious and menacing it has come to be. It is the old Prussianism of the First World War, but much more firmly entrenched in the German state. The introduction (pp. 1-16) sets the stage for his treatment of his theme in characterizing the period under review as "The Great Paradox: Militarism in an Era of Pacificism." Part I is devoted to "The Militarist Roots of National Socialism"; Part II describes the activities of "The Professional Officers after the War"; Part III is designated "The Shock Trooper and the Free Corps"; and Part IV poses the question, What is Militarism? In Part V, "The Nihilization of Military Qualities," he demonstrates the baneful effects of the new militarism on its exponents, devoting an entire chapter to Captain Roehm as an exemplar of "the decline of the code of the German officers." Part VI, "National Socialist Militarism," represents his final conclusions. In a series of chapters he indicates clearly the role played by the professional officer, the shock trooper, and the citizen soldier. "The particular new type of German militarism—is the soul of National Socialism; and . . . National Socialism has become the soul of German militarism." In the Epilogue the author warns the United Nations against the mistakes of 1918. "A victory of the United Nations will not be an automatic guarantee of salvation. The ultimate outcome will rest upon what is done after National Socialist militarism has been overcome on the battlefield."

The Political Scientist and National Service in Wartime, Report of the Committee on Wartime Services of the American Political Science Association. Foreword by WILLIAM ANDERSON. Washington, D. C.: American Council on Public Affairs, n. d.

This is the report of a Committee appointed in December 1941 in response to a resolution of the Association adopted at its annual meeting.

It was made after consultation "with persons in other disciplines." The report covers possibilities of service in research, in administrative and executive work, in an advisory capacity, and in organizing work, merely mentioning employment in State and local public service. It points out the difficulties of actual employment in the Federal service but recommends the more general utilization of political scientists for the study of such aspects of our present government as the formation of public opinion and public attitudes, the behavior of local rationing boards, and public attitudes toward administration of price regulation. It urges the pursuit by the association members of needed research irrespective of the possibility of such research being sponsored by government authority. It directs attention to the possible in-service training of government employees through its members and emphasizes especially the importance of the political scientist's classroom. "There is need now that he enlarge his audience" (p. 14). A pessimistic note runs through the report in pointing out how little the political scientist has been sought out as compared with the economist, and implies, if it does not actually urge, that members of the guild might identify themselves more closely with public affairs and garner some practical experience which would make themselves more acceptable in the public service.

Victory Over Fear, by JOHN DOLLARD. New York: Reynal and Hitchcock, Inc., 1942, 213 pp.

The author of this popularly written book has had long experience in studying human beings and their fears at the Institute of Human Relations, Yale University. The materials in this volume are accumulated to aid individuals in conquering their fears. The reader is warned, however, that the content will function only in case the reader has a dynamic want for such help.